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ABSTRACT

These three papers were presented at a symposium on human resource development (HRD) in selected nations moderated by Alan Mumford at the 1996 conference of the Academy of Human Resource Development. "Perspectives of United States Expatriates in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France on Expatriation and the Role of Their Sponsoring Organizations" (Jean Rowe McFarland) reveals the perceptions of expatriate employees in these countries through a study conducted through in-depth interviews. Themes emerging from this interpretive study suggest that expatriates feel unprepared, misunderstood, and forgotten and that organizations, not the expatriates, are primarily responsible for expatriate failures. "The Need for an Indigenous Approach to Management Development in Bangladesh" (Gary N. McLean) reports on two descriptive studies that addressed the applicability of Western management theory and practices in Bangladesh. The studies showed the following: Bangladeshi believe finances, quality, and growth, supported by culture, quality practices, and management contribute to organizational excellence; and Bangladesh is highly collectivistic, highly feminine, with medium-to-high power distance, and medium-to-high uncertainty avoidance. "The Future of HRD" (Jan Streumer et al.) examines which organizational and technological and training developments will become crucial in the coming years, and what consequences they will bring to HRD. Papers contain references. (KC)

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SYMPOSIUM
[5] HRD IN SELECTED NATIONS
Chair: Alan Mumford, United Kingdom

Perspectives of United States Expatriates in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France on Expatriation and the Role of Their Sponsoring Organizations
Jean Rowe McFarland, G.P. Morgan & Associates, Inc.

The Need for an Indigenous Approach to Management Development in Bangladesh
Gary N. McLean, University of Minnesota

The Future of HRD
Jan Streumer, University of Twente
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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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Perspectives of United States Expatriates in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France on Expatriation and the Role of Their Sponsoring Organizations

Jean Rowe McFarland
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In-depth interviews with United States expatriate employees and spouses living in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France reveal their perceptions of expatriate selection and preparation, and the role of the organization in supporting expatriates. Themes that emerged from this interpretive study suggest that expatriates feel unprepared, misunderstood, and forgotten and that organizations, not the expatriates, are primarily responsible for expatriate failures.

Based on employees' managerial and technical expertise, United States organizations decide to send international assignees to foreign destinations. Seldom are other factors such as the candidates' interpersonal skills, communication skills, personalities, or knowledge of the targeted culture questioned although intercultural research has identified communication skills as important to both cross-cultural adaptation and intercultural effectiveness. Hammer (1989) cited communication skills as "one of the three central dimensions viewed as important to an individual's effective functioning in a foreign culture (the other two dimensions are the ability to deal with intercultural stress and the ability to establish interpersonal relationships)" (p. 249), but managers continue to assume that if the employee has managerial or technical expertise, he or she will succeed on an international assignment in a foreign culture.

Problem Statement

Unfortunately for both organizations and expatriates, research studies consistently show that the failure rate among international assignees is high (Copeland, 1985, 1990; McFarland, 1995) and that failure (defined as returning before the assignment is completed) is attributed to inability to adjust to the host culture. Whereas previous research (Copeland, 1985, 1990) indicated that international assignees on short-term assignments (up to six months) do not require preparation for intercultural interactions or cultural adjustment because of the short terms, recent research (McFarland, 1995) indicates that the failure rate is high among short-term as well as long-term international assignees. Regardless of the length of the assignment, ineffective intercultural interactions appear to contribute to the failure of international assignments.

Purpose Statement

Although positivistic research has been used to study intercultural communication training and relocation assistance (McFarland, 1995; Windham International & NFTC, 1994), reports of interpretive research of expatriation are scarce. Little has been systematically studied in terms of expatriates' perceptions of the expatriate experience. The purpose of this study was to learn the perspectives of expatriates and to interpret those perspectives within a theoretical framework in order to understand the meaning of their expatriation experience.

Research Question

This study was designed to learn about expatriation as a *lived* experience from those who are living

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it and to attempt to understand the meaning of the phenomenon of expatriation. Expatriation cannot be separated from intercultural communication, and phenomenology has been labeled a fruitful perspective for the study of intercultural communication (Pilotta cited in Gudykunst & Nishida, 1989). Thus, the research is viewed as a hermeneutic phenomenological study, searching for description (phenomenology) and understanding (hermeneutics) of the phenomenon of expatriation. As such, only one research question was asked: What is it like to be an expatriate?

Literature Review

Due to space limitations, the literature review is severely abbreviated from that of the original study. The literature reveals that organizations are not fully appreciative of the psychological impact of working and living in a culture other than one's own. The psychological impact is evidenced by the astoundingly high failure rate of expatriates (Copeland, 1985; 1990; McFarland, 1995). However, perusal of the literature suggests that high failure rates should not be a surprise if expatriates' psychological well-being and pre-departure cultural preparation are considered.

If predeparture intercultural communication training is provided, it often is inadequate and insufficient. Brislin (1981) believes intercultural training should attempt to improve cognitive, affective, and behavioral performance. However, what organizations offer under the guise of intercultural communication training may provide little more than the do's and don'ts of the target culture. Rarely, does it deliver underlying theories that allow the principles of intercultural communication to be applied to the variety of personalities that are in any culture and to be transferred to other cultures. Even intercultural communication trainers seem to forget that communities and workforces around the world are now multicultural, so to prepare an expatriate to work in Germany, for example, does not negate the probability that he/she will be working with members of other cultures as well. Cultural preparation and adjustment is an issue of human resource development and business outcomes.

Human Resource Development Perspective. Adaptation to a culture becomes synonymous with successful communication within that culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992) because culture *is* communication (Hall, 1981). With this in mind, some people may say that if one knows the language, ones knows the culture, but knowing the culture is more than being able to speak the language fluently. Jawaharlal Nehru emphasized that communication is not in the narrow sense of the *word*, but is language of the *mind*, that it is not the appeal to logic and reason, but is an *emotional awareness* of other people (cited in Adler, 1991). Intercultural communication training helps people to be culturally sensitive and aware that, in turn, contributes to cultural adjustment. Expatriates who fail to adjust culturally return to their organizations labeled as failures and suffer professionally as they lose prestige in the eyes of their superiors. These people frequently take positions for which they are over qualified due to their loss of self-confidence and prestige.

Business Perspective. "Culture is not peripheral to business--it's central to business. It permeates every aspect of business" (Guptara, 1990, p. 13). Seventy-five to 83% of corporations report recalls of from 10-14% of their expatriates (Copeland, 1985; McFarland, 1995). Recalls of expatriates cost U.S. corporations over $2 billion per year in terms of funds spent on recalled employees and funds spent to replace them. Nearly half of those who do not adjust well to the culture, but complete their assignments report that they function below their normal level of productivity (Copeland, 1985). In addition, both recalls and low productivity are responsible for inestimable costs in terms of missed business opportunities.

Theoretical Framework

By definition, expatriation is a sojourn in a system other than one's own. Successful expatriation is based on cultural adaptation within that system, which, in turn, is a function of communication. As such, the theoretical framework is built of communication, culture, and general systems theories.

Communication Theory. A basic communication model (cited in Adler, 1991) indicates that the message sent is never the same as the message received. This is true among

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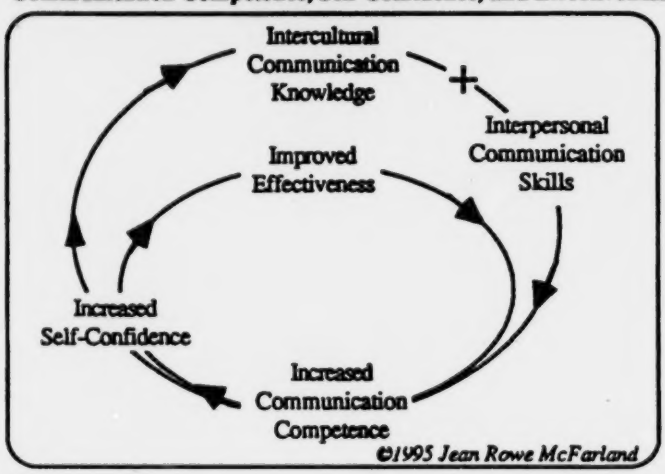
people of the same culture and language and even more evident among people communicating across cultures.

Intercultural Communication. The messages received by listeners/observers are decoded and filtered through their personal perspectives. Those perspectives are determined by their experiences, which are immersed in their cultures, so all interpretations of communications are made through the lens of one's culture. When the cultural lenses are different, interpretations are different; however, when intercultural awareness is heightened, the lenses of the message sender and the message recipient are more nearly aligned, and communication competence is heightened. Intercultural communication competence is based on intercultural communication knowledge synergized with interpersonal communication skill (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. Intercultural Communication Training Combined with Interpersonal Communication Skills Triggers a Cycle of Communication Competence, Self-Confidence, and Effectiveness



Interpersonal Communication. Interpersonal communication skills are a predictor of intercultural effectiveness (Copeland, 1990; Hammer, 1989; Kudirka, 1989; Rohrlich, 1987). The greater the degree of interpersonal interaction and involvement in a host culture, the greater the number of host culture friends and the more positive the expatriate's attitude toward the host culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992).

Hofstede's Theory of Cultural Dimensions. Hofstede's (1984, 1991) theory of cultural dimensions assists in characterizing, predicting, identifying, and interpreting general behavior within and among cultures, thus, laying the theoretical foundation for intercultural communication training across cultures and for specific cultures. Hofstede's (1984) four cultural dimensions of (1) individualism versus collectivism, (2) power distance, (3) uncertainty avoidance, and (4) masculinity versus femininity stem from a six-year study in 50 nations.

Individualism versus Collectivism. Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: Collectivism, on the opposite pole of this continuum, pertains to societies in which people from birth onward are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's lifetimes continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1984).

Power Distance. Power distance is the measure of the degree of inequality in society. It is defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a culture expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1984, 1991).

Uncertainty Avoidance. The essence of uncertainty is that it is a subjective experience, a feeling that is acquired and learned. Feelings and ways of coping with them belong to cultural heritage, are reflected in collectively held values of members of a society, and lead to collective patterns of behavior in one society (Hofstede, 1984).

Ways to alleviate anxiety, which stems from uncertainty, are through technology, religion, and law: Technology helps to avoid uncertainties caused by nature; religion helps in the acceptance of uncertainties; and laws and rules try to prevent uncertainties in the behavior of other people.

Masculinity versus Femininity. The masculinity index refers to qualities that were historically associated with the male and the female genders. Some of these qualities are assertiveness, competition, and toughness for the male gender and nurturance, cooperation, and relationship-building for the female gender (Hofstede, 1984).

General Systems Theory. General systems theory "[1] provides a perspective and vantage point for thinking about the organization. . . . [2] directs us to consider and influence the processes that are unique to self-aware systems. . . . and [3] helps us to adapt a big-picture view of development" (McLagan, 1989, pp. 78, 79). As globalization becomes more of a reality and less of a prediction, people such as expatriates must function in more distant parts of the system than they once did. Intercultural communication is based on systems theory assumptions and focuses on the intercultural processes that take place when individuals from one culture relocate to another culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992).

Research Methodology

This research is an interpretive study of expatriation in western European nations.

Informants. Names of United States expatriates were acquired from top-level international human resource development professionals. The expatriate informants were connected directly as employees or indirectly as spouses to organizations in California, Minnesota, Texas, and Connecticut. All organizations represented are multinational except one, which is a medium-sized international organization. Ages of the informants ranged from the early thirties to the early fifties. All except one informant had expatriate children. Four informants previously had been expatriates; three never had been.. Although unknown until the interviews were completed, none had had intercultural communication training. All had been in their current assignments from 15 months to 3 1/2 years.

Data Collection. As recommended by Spradley (1979), Dobbert (1989), and van Manen (1990), unstructured, audio-taped, face-to-face interviews were used to gather data and to provide detailed, expanded accounts in verbatim records.

Data Analysis. The following strategies for discovering themes by using linguistic symbols have been suggested by Spradley, Tesch, Dobbert, and van Manen (1979, 1987, 1989, 1990, respectively) (sometimes using different terms for the same processes) and were used for thematic analysis in this study: transcription, highlighting, summarization, tree diagramming, domain analysis, taxonomic analysis, and componential analysis.

Findings and Interpretation

Three metathemes emerged during data analysis. They are addressed here as personal, organizational, and cultural factors. The common thread that links the three factors is the organization and its performance in terms of expatriates. Whereas, expatriate failure generally reflects poorly on expatriates, the findings strongly suggest that the organization is primarily responsible for the success or failure of its expatriates through its role in selection (personal factor), support (organizational factor), and preparation (cultural factor) of its expatriates.

Metatheme One: Personal Factor. If an organization plays a competent role in selection of expatriates by including personal attributes and characteristics in the selection criteria, personal factors can be restricted to primarily enablers of cultural adjustment and, thus, successful expatriation.

Expatriates, recognizing the demands of adjusting to foreign cultures, strongly recommend that organizations focus on personal attributes: flexibility, adaptability, enthusiasm, dynamism, employability, self-motivation, resourcefulness, assertiveness, curiosity, initiative, appreciation of cultural diversity, good health, optimum body weight, and positive attitude. Interpersonal skills recommended are a sense of humor, open-mindedness, friendliness, ability to laugh at oneself, honesty, respect for others, and appreciation of personal differences.

Metatheme Two: Organizational Factor. An organization can make itself an enabler of cultural adjustment and, thus, successful expatriation if it employs conscientious human resource management practices in selection (Metatheme 1) and human resource development

practices in the form of psychological and physical support of its expatriates during their expatriation.

There is little doubt that organizations who send expatriates abroad provide satisfactory physical support for them. However, the one need that continually arose in the interviews was their need for psychological support. They need frequent communication with the organization in order to feel remembered and valued. They need confirmation that they are an integral part of the organizational and international system.

Metatheme Three: Cultural Factor. Culture as a disabler of cultural adjustment of expatriates can be minimized or, in some cases, eliminated if intercultural communication training is provided for and utilized by prospective expatriates who are selected for their personal attributes and characteristics (Metatheme 1) in addition to their technical and managerial skills and who are fully supported during expatriation and repatriation by their organizations (Metatheme 2).

Culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another (Hofstede, 1993). "As nearly all our mental programs are affected by values, nearly all are affected by culture, and this is reflected by our *behavior*" [emphasis added] (1984, p. 23). If expatriates have been trained in intercultural communication, they will know the behavior to expect; if expatriates know the history of the culture, which should be part of intercultural communication training, they will know the reasons behind the behaviors.

Table one shows that Belgium and France share more commonalities with each other than they do with the Netherlands or the United States; the Netherlands share more commonalities with the United States except in the masculinity dimension. Knowledge of Hofstede's (1984) cultural dimensions and the corresponding index values provides a foundation for predicting behavior of members of these societies. "If I take the train from Brussels to Rotterdam, I can tell the Belgian passengers from the Dutch; most Dutch people greet strangers when entering a small, closed space like a train compartment, but most Belgians do not" (p. 23). Hofstede stated that in his study of 50 countries, "no two countries with a common border and a common language are so far culturally apart . . . as Belgium and the Netherlands" (p. 228). The expatriate informants witnessed similar behaviors:

> You walk six inches from someone, and they will not smile. They will not look at you. It just kind of gets on your nerves after a while.--*Belgium*
>
> The Belgians are much more formal and private. The Dutch are more like Americans--more open, friendly.--*Netherlands*

Table 1. Indices* of Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions for Belgium, France, the Netherlands, and the United States

Dimension	Belgium	France	Netherlands	United States
Power Distance	65	68	38	40
Individualism	75	71	80	91
Masculinity	54	43	14	62
Uncertainty Avoidance	94	86	53	46

*On scales of 1 - 100 where 1 = lowest level and 100 = highest level.

As culture predicts behavior, history predicts culture. Belgium and France fit into a cluster of Latin European countries, all of which reflect their Roman heritage. First, Belgium and France have relatively high Power Distance Index (PDI) values. The Roman Empire was the first large and effective state to be established in the Latin countries (Hofstede, 1984). By an implied contract, the people conferred all power over them to the Roman Emperor, who had absolute

authority and stood above the law (large PDI). When the Roman Empire disintegrated, Germanic invaders of France took over the absolute authority of the Roman emperor, continuing the large PDI. In Hofstede's (1984) view, large power distance values are linked to slow population growth and static societies in which historical cultures tend to persist and little change occurs, as in France and Belgium. Second, a lasting indicator of the cultural inheritance of the Roman Empire is language. Until recently French language and culture have been strongly dominant over the Dutch language and culture in Belgium. French was the language of the Belgian government, upper classes, and education for over 100 years, until emancipation of the Dutch-speaking majority in the 1950s. Third, "The Roman Empire, by establishing an effective system of formal control of its territories and a unified legal system, set an uncertainty avoidance pattern that seems to have survived as a societal norm in the countries most affected by the empire's inheritance" (Hofstede, 1984, p. 135).

Following are observations made by the expatriate informants and the cultural dimensions that could have predicted and explained the observed behaviors had intercultural communication training been delivered to the expatriates.

Uncertainty Avoidance (UA). High uncertainty avoidance levels account for the informants' observations of Belgian and French behaviors. People who live in high UA societies typically build high fences around their property, so they cannot be viewed from the street. They have heavy shutters and doors on their homes and offices. They are private people who look at achievement as avoiding failure rather than achieving success. They are likely to view cultural diversity as a threat.

> You can see just by walking through the neighborhood--everybody has a huge fence around their house. They close it off as much as they can, and as soon as it gets dark, those big heavy blinds go down. Very, very private people.--*Belgium*

> Belgians are taken care of in their social system. The women all get 'mommy money' as we call it--you get a certain amount of money for each child you have.--*Belgium*

> A French manager likes to surround himself with people who aren't what you'd call A-1. I think they have the opinion that they're always going to look good in a scenario like that.--*France*

> If you don't want to do [business] within France, they don't want to talk to you. They are nationalistic all the way.--*France*

> There is no interaction between the communities. I can tell you 25% of Antwerp voted for the Nationalist party, which is like the send-them-home party. Anti-American, as well.--*Belgium*

> Have you heard of the laws that they just passed about the language? You may not advertise anything in English.--*France*

> I guess they're not tolerant about other lifestyles.--*Belgium*

Power Distance (PD). Power distance is blatantly demonstrated in bureaucracies and, often, in family structures. Hofstede (1984) observed that the method of family inheritance in France and Belgium contributed to their nationalism and maintained their large power distance. Unlike other European countries where the eldest son inherited the family estate, leaving his siblings to emigrate to nations that had land, such as the United States, the family estates in Belgium and France were divided equally among all the heirs as had been the practice in the Roman Empire. The result, of course, was that throughout the years, each piece of inherited land became smaller, but also, the practice caused people to remain in their homeland, contributing to a static society and retention of bureaucracies and the large power distance established by the Roman Empire. Adler (1991) wrote that a large power distance allows blame and decision-making to always be pushed up the hierarchy to someone else.

> Nobody here makes a mistake. It's always the other guy.–*France*

> The bureaucracy here is a paper mill. They tell you the form you need. Then you need five more forms.–*Belgium*

> Lots of screaming and haggling here. It seems to indicate you have authority or you wouldn't act as such. Authority is needed before you get results.–*Belgium*

> In the U. S., you don't need an identification card.–*Belgium*

Masculinity/Femininity (MAS). "Much of societal masculinity-femininity differences must be historically and traditionally determined . . . [There is a] tendency toward more Catholicism in more uncertainty-avoiding countries, . . [and] the data show that countries with a Catholic culture tend to be more masculine" (Hofstede, 1984, pp. 204, 205). Both Belgium and France are uncertainty-avoiding and predominantly Catholic, and have much higher masculinity values than the Netherlands. In feminine cultures such as the Netherlands, the preference for resolving conflict is by compromise and negotiation. Dutch culture would not include behavioral displays that attract attention as might be found in France and Belgium.

> Belgium has a drinking culture. The bars are open all night. It's not uncommon for men to stay out drinking all night--it's part of the culture. Loud, angry fighting is typical.

> Dad's rule the roost around here. That's just what I see in the neighborhood.–*Belgium*

> John [a neighbor] is as Flemish as his wife is French, and they *demand* that every Sunday the family [married children] be there for lunch, 12:00.–*Belgium*

Individualism/Collectivism (IDV). Most large Power Distance index (PD) countries are low IDV index countries, except some Latin European countries, especially Belgium and France, who have high values in both. According to Hofstede (1984), these people have a need for the strict authority of hierarchical superiors, but at the same time stress their personal independence. "They are dependent individualists" (p. 157). The Dutch, on the other hand, have a higher IDV index than either France or Belgium, but do not experience the tension that adding a large PD index would create. The Netherlands' small PD index and high IDV index more closely link them culturally to the United States than to Belgium or France.

> And the Dutch are more like Americans, really, more open and friendly.–*Netherlands*

> She [neighbor] came over with a plant the first day we moved in, and when I didn't have any books to read, he had a large English selection of books. We still trade books back and forth.–*Netherlands*

> Belgian people don't invite others into their homes--their castles. If I took a casserole, for example, to a Belgian neighbor and said, 'Hi, I'm so-and-so, your neighbor,' they'd look at me like I was some sort of an apparition.–*Belgium*

> I expected within the first week I was here to have someone ring the doorbell and introduce themselves to me. A year went by and I still haven't met those people over there [next door neighbors]–*Belgium*

If the expatriates had had intercultural communication training that included a theoretical foundation for application and transfer of learning, they would have been able to predict and understand many of the behaviors they witnessed.

Conclusion and Future Directions for Research

This study suggests that the large organizations represented herein do not view cultural sensitivity as critically important in conducting global business and do not recognize their role in preventing expatriate failure. The metathemes that emerged from the data analysis imply several avenues for future research in the areas of selection, communication between expatriates and their organizations, cultural preparedness, and definition of expatriate success and failure.

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The Need for an Indigenous Approach to Management Development in Bangladesh

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Two descriptive studies addressed the applicability of Western management theory and practices in Bangladesh. One study explored characteristics perceived by Bangladesh managers to contribute to organizational excellence. The three characteristics factors were finances, quality (very strong), and growth; factors supporting these characteristics were culture, quality practices, and management. The second study explored cultural characteristics in Bangladesh businesses using Hofstede's (1980) survey. Bangladesh is highly collectivistic, highly feminine, with medium-to-high power distance, and medium-to-high uncertainty avoidance.

There has been much debate regarding the applicability of Western management theory and practices to the economic progress of developing countries. Both transnational corporations and non-government organizations often make the ethnocentric assumption that what works in the West is best for management throughout the world.

Management development is dependent on one's image of what management is and how managers should manage. Yet O'Toole (1985, p. 54) correctly observed that "there is no 'right way' to manage all companies at all times." Nevertheless, he identified four general characteristics possessed by all "vanguard" companies: 1) they practice stakeholder symmetry; 2) they are dedicated to a high purpose; 3) they are committed to learning; and 4) they attempt to be the best at everything they do (O'Toole, 1985).

O'Toole's publication followed another best-seller (In Search of Excellence) that presented eight principles for corporate excellence:

1. Have bias for action.
2. Be close to the customer.
3. Encourage autonomy and entrepreneurship.
4. Develop productivity through people.
5. Be hands-on, value driven.
6. Stick to the knitting.
7. Use simple form, lean staff.
8. Display simultaneous loose-tight properties. (Peters & Waterman, 1982)

Deming's (1993) 14 management points and 7 deadly diseases subsequently gained great popularity in the West based on Deming's experience in Japan. Likewise, Juran (1988), Brocka & Brocka (1992), and many, many other experts have all offered their perspectives around what it takes for companies to achieve quality (excellence).

All of these principles and theories have emerged from practices found, and studies conducted, primarily in the United States and, certainly, in developed economies. Historically, management theory and practices in developing countries have been heavily influenced by developed countries--the textbooks used, much of the research conducted, the audio-visual support materials used, and the training of many of their faculty. Yet O'Toole (1985, p. 17) observed that a corporation's needs are defined, at least in part, by "the society of which it is a part." So, too, should the education of managers reflect the society in which they are to operate. That suggests, therefore, that it may not be possible to take a set of principles developed in one cultural setting (the United States) and transfer it wholesale to another cultural setting (Bangladesh).

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Forti (1981) stated:

> Few single approaches could be applied internationally with any hope of success, both because the nature of man's (sic.) basic needs is perceived differently in different countries and because the solutions appropriate to one country would be unsuitable in another with a different sociocultural and ecological setting. (p. 2)

Laurent (1986) conducted a study of participants drawn from managers participating in executive development programs at INSEAD, who were from a wide variety of companies and countries. According to the study, the largest indicator of management assumptions was nationality, which had three times more influence than any other characteristic. Laurent concluded that Management (with a capital M) does not exist and that organizations should not ignore societal and cultural contexts.

This conclusion is consistent with that drawn by Trompenaars (1994):

> Rather than there being one best way of organizing, there are several ways, some very much more culturally appropriate and effective than others, but all of them giving international managers additional options in their repertoires if they are willing and able to clarify the reactions of foreign cultures. (p. 21)

Many developing countries are struggling to develop an indigenous understanding of management for their own cultural environment. In India, for example, Chakraborty wrote several articles (e.g., 1986) and texts (e.g., 1985) underscoring the impact that Yoga and the Vendantic tradition should have on Indian management theory. Sheth (1986) wrote that there are two schools of thought among Indian management scholars:

> (1) those who regard western models...as relevant to all countries, although they recognize the need for minor cultural adaptations, and (2) those who have significant doubts about the applicability of the western concepts and models to the Indian environment and, therefore, are in search of alternative approaches relevant to the socioeconomic and cultural spectrum of contemporary India. Scholars in the second category are likely to be aware of the Indian philosophical and spiritual traditions and believe that these traditions contain models of effective living and working in modern India. (p. 108)

Although not much research is found regarding the importance of indigenized management education materials, many company leaders have learned by experience and attested to the importance of such materials. Wiggenhorn (1990), Motorola corporate vice president of training and education, shared his firm belief that cultural diversity management is an essential element for global competition:

> By studying, evaluating, and implementing the best of the East and the best of the West, we can certainly succeed in the present and look forward to an exciting and rewarding future...It is not just good business sense; it is common sense. (p. 70)

Wiggenhorn was referring to the challenges of managing the many diverse cultures at a global corporation such as Motorola, with over 100,000 employees in more than forty major facilities around the world.

Gourlay (1990), assistant vice-president of Coca Cola Company, stressed the importance of understanding not only the culture of the customer, but also the culture of the workforce: "Understanding how to do business in different countries with different cultures and different languages is fundamental to our success" (p. 72).

Fundamental to successful businesses in countries with different cultures and languages is indigenized management education materials. After The Conference Board's Second Annual Quality Conference in New York City, Conference Board staff member, Schein (1990), wrote:

> The successful management of cultural diversity is essential in achieving world-class quality....[this involves] eradicating cultural stereotypes in parent countries, getting support of local management and dealing with issues of training, empowerment and customer satisfaction in a diversity of peoples and workplaces. (p. xiii)

Likewise, a major World Bank project in Bangladesh, the Business Management Education and Training Project, had among its many objectives the development of indigenous textbooks (5), case studies (about 100), and research (about 50 reports) for use in the country's

management development activities in their universities' faculties of commerce, in the Institute of Business Administration, and in the Bangladesh Management Development Centre. (See McLean, 1986.)

Research Question

The research question, in both studies, related to the question of whether Western management theory and practices can encompass the scope of several cultures and societies. Specifically, one study explored the question of the characteristics perceived by Bangladeshis to contribute to organizational excellence. The second study explored the characteristics of managers in Bangladesh as determined by Hofstede's (1980) classical four categories: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Masculinity/Femininity, and Individualism/Collectivism.

Methodology: Characteristics of Excellent Companies

The study on organizational excellence utilized a survey or interview of managers in four urban locations in Bangladesh. An interview schedule/questionnaire was developed, based on literature available in the United States. Several university professors in Bangladesh reviewed the interview schedule/questionnaire for validation, and it was revised based on their input. The instrument was designed to be used as a questionnaire (in English) or an interview schedule (in Bengali), to accommodate the language needs of all respondents.

Test reliability was established by administering the survey (modified slightly to fit the United States environment) to 58 graduate students in Human Resource Development at the University of Minnesota. Stability was determined by administering the same test one week later to the same group of students and correlating the results. The test was revised to improve questions with low stability. The stability of the main factors (questions 1-32) was .91, and the supporting factors (33-70), .92. Both results reflect very high stability. Reliability was also determined using the actual results from the administration of the questionnaire in Bangladesh. Results showed coefficients based on factor analysis of the three main factors of .89, .90, and .82, while they were .90, .84, and .78 for the three supporting factors.

The survey was hand carried to a purposive sample of 68 business people residing in the geographic areas of Chittagong, Dhaka, Khulna, and Rajshahi in Bangladesh. All requested to participate in the study agreed. The respondents were selected so no company contributed more than one respondent. The sample was purposive, representing a range of business types and occupational categories. If the respondent did not have good English skills, the instrument was administered orally in Bengali. Otherwise, the instrument was completed and returned to the research assistant.

The questionnaire instructed the respondents to list the top five companies operating in Bangladesh that they considered to be the best. The purpose of this list was to give respondents something concrete to visualize while answering the survey questions. The questions were grouped into two parts. The first section listed main factors perceived as responsible for company excellence. For example, "The quality of their products/services" and "Their sales volume" are listed as main factors. The second section listed supporting factors to company excellence. Examples of supporting factors to company excellence are: "The companies are committed to continual improvement" and "The companies exercise sound financial controls." The participants were asked to rate the importance of the 70 business factor variables using the following scale: 0--Not at all important; 1--Of some importance; 2--Important; and 3--Very important.

Methodology: Work Related Values

Since publishing his work on international differences in work-related values, Hofstede's (1980, 1991) work has become one of the most often cited pieces of literature on cultures (Sondergaard, 1994). As a foundation for his work, Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" (p. 21). His Value Survey Module (VSM) was administered to 116,000 IBM employees in 40 countries. In this process, he identified four dimensions of culture. Each will be discussed briefly.

Power distance is "the difference between the extent to which [boss] B can determine the behavior of [subordinate] S and the extent to which S can determine the behavior of B" (p. 72). Power distance basically looks at whether there is equality among people. In small power distance countries, Hofstede (1991) suggested that "there is limited dependence of subordinates on bosses, and a preference for consultation, that is interdependence between boss and subordinate....In large power distance countries three is considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses" (p. 27).

Uncertainty avoidance is a measure of how well people tolerate ambiguity. According to Hofstede (1991), people of strong uncertainty avoidance cultures avoid ambiguous situations, while people of weak uncertainty avoidance cultures do not shy away from "activities for which there are no rules" (p. 117).

Individualism "pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose; everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family," while *collectivism* "pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Hofstede, 1991, p. 51).

Finally, in the most controversial of his factors, Hofstede (1991) concluded that people in *masculine* societies believe that "men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be more modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life." On the other hand, in *feminine* societies, "both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life" (p. 83).

Hofstede's original work (1980) included samples from 40 countries, while an update published in 1991 increased the sample of countries to 50. Bangladesh, however, has not been included in this "world culture map," either through Hofstede's research or that of the many researchers using the VSM.

The VSM was used to collect data from a stratified purposive sample of 258 managers and non-managers in three major Bangladesh cities: Chittagong, Dhaka, and Rajshahi. Table 1, next page, displays the demographics of the sample.

The surveys were hand delivered by the author and Bangladesh business professors during a World Bank commissioned management training program. The VSM consists of 55 questions requiring 45-60 minutes to complete. If the respondents had good English skills (most of the managers), the questionnaire was left to be completed and picked up a week later. If English skills were low (most of the non-managers), the person delivering the survey assisted the respondent by translating the questions into Bengali, the official language of Bangladesh. This approach resulted in a 100% response rate.

The Values Survey Module has in general shown acceptable validity (Hunt, 1981; Singh, 1990; Sondergaard, 1994; Triandis, 1982). Reliability was determined by calculating Cronbach's alphas for the entire instrument and for each of the four scales. While overall reliability was modest but acceptable (.65), the individual scale reliabilities were only marginally acceptable for three of the four scales (Power Distance, .34; Individualism/Collectivism, .49; and Masculinity/Femininity, .58). The reliability for Uncertainty Avoidance was unacceptable at -.03.

Table 1
Demographic Profile of Sample (n=258)

Group	n	%
Age		
29 and under	36	14
30-39	123	48
40 and over	99	38
Education		
10 years and under	37	14
11-15 years	71	28
16 years and over	150	58
Manager Status		
Non-manager	116	45
Manager	142	55
Firm Type		
Multinational	57	22
Privately owned, not multinational	67	26
Owned by government	134	52
Gender		
Male	246	95
Female	12	5

Findings: Characteristics of Excellent Companies

The data were analyzed using factor analysis. The factor analysis, KMO (Kaisser-Meyer-Olkin) index, includes $0 < KMO < 1$. Factor analysis determines the correlation among the questionnaire variables. Anything higher than .5 is good sampling adequacy. The KMO index of variables 1-32 is .57. The KMO index of variables 33-70 is .50.

The clusters of each factor were determined by using the results of a rotated factor analysis. It was determined that there were six categories of variables represented in the survey.

Characteristics The first half of the questionnaire (characteristics) resulted in three clusters: (1) finances, (2) quality, and (3) growth. An example of a finances factor is, "Their level of profitability." Examples of quality and growth factors, respectively, are: "The quality of their products/services" and "Their continuous growth in sales." The top ten main characteristics for company excellence in Bangladesh (first half of the questionnaire) are shown in Table 2, next page.

Supporting Factors It was determined that the second half of the questionnaire (supporting factors) also fit into three factors: (1) culture, (2) quality practices, and (3) management. An example of a culture factor is, "The companies' attempt to be the best at everything they do." A quality practices example is, "The companies' top priority is in producing a high-quality product/service." An example of a management factor is, "The companies' constancy of philosophy." Table 3 displays those items perceived to be the major practices supporting the characteristics of company excellence in Bangladesh.

Table 2
Top Ten Main Characteristics for Company Excellence in Bangladesh (Part A)

Q	Characteristic	Mean	SD
4	Quality of their products/services	2.66	.61
3	Sales volume	2.48	.75
2	Return on investment	2.47	.66
1	Level of profitability	2.41	.74
32	High level of capacity utilization	2.33	.84
5	Concern for consumers	2.30	.81
22	Level of productivity	2.26	.75
9	Concern for their employees in providing good working conditions	2.25	.72
10	Concern for their employees in providing good pay and benefits	2.21	.75
18	Continuous growth in sales	2.20	.73

Note: Q = Question; SD = Standard Deviation

Table 3
Top Ten Supporting Factors for Company Excellence in Bangladesh (Part B)

Q	Characteristic	Mean	SD
1	The companies' top priority is in producing a high-quality product/service	2.72	.62
20	The companies exercise sound financial controls	2.52	.61
3	The companies are committed to continual improvement	2.48	.56
2	The companies attempt to be the best at everything they do	2.46	.72
6	The companies only attempt to do business in fields they understand well	2.34	.69
16	Management of the companies stays in close contact with customer needs	2.31	.80
19	The companies take full advantage of technological improvement	2.30	.76
23	Employee pay in these companies is linked with employee performance	2.17	.76
17	Employee pay and benefits in these companies exceed the average for Bangladesh	2.16	.80
7	The companies attempt to balance the needs of all parties–customers, employees, government, shareholders, dealers, etc.	2.14	.79

Note: Q = Question; SD = Standard Deviation

Findings: Work Related Values

The results showed that Bangladesh is a highly collectivistic (individualism = 7) and highly feminine (masculinity = 9) country of medium-to-high power distance (55) and medium-to-high uncertainty avoidance (55). These characteristics were also compared by age, education level, manager/non-manager, and firm type. Differences among these groups were identified.

Age Collectivism does not vary much with age; the Bangladeshis in the sample remained consistently strong on collectivism across the three age groups. On power distance, those under 30 have a high power distance that diminishes some between the ages of 30-39 and then rebounds some over age 39; it remains from medium to high. While the masculinity score remains the same to age 39, at a relatively low score, the score drops dramatically over age 39. Finally, uncertainty avoidance also remains relatively stable at a medium level through age 39. Over 39, the score rises to a high level, indicating less acceptance of ambiguity at an older age.

Education Level Uncertainty avoidance and power distance decrease from high to medium as years of education received increases. As more education is received, people are more willing to accept ambiguity and equality among people. Educational level, however, does not cause much variation on individualism, though there is a slight movement towards individuation from a very strong position of collectivism. Finally, there is some variation on masculinity, with a very high level of femininity for those with 11-15 years of education, though the other two groups remained low on masculinity.

Managerial/Non-managerial Level The scores on the four cultural dimension varied narrowly with this variable. This finding is consistent with Hofstede's (1980) contention that the four dimensions do not differ by managerial position but, rather, are reflections of the culture broadly.

Firm Type Little variation occurred among the three groups for uncertainty avoidance. Employees of government-owned companies scored the lowest in both individualism (most collectivist) and masculinity (most feminine). On power distance, there were no differences between multinationals and government-owned companies, with employees of privately-owned companies scoring the highest. In fact, not surprisingly, on every one of the four dimensions, though not significantly on uncertainty avoidance, the employees of privately-owned, but not multinational, companies scored higher than the other two groups.

Conclusion

As Swanson (1990) rightly observed, "The global economy does not allow cultural differences to justify poor performances...[nor does it] allow managers to profit as easily from their own below-average performances" (p. 106).

Much more research is needed in this area of cross-cultural management development. Which management philosophies or training methods are most effective, why are they effective, and where are they effective? Which elements of cultural differences ought to be the greatest concern? If Bangladesh and other countries hope to compete in the global market, or even their own market, they will need an indigenous management theory and subsequent practices in order to meet the demands of their business environment.

The research reported herein suggests that Bangladesh managers understand and acknowledge what their organizations must emphasize for their success within the global economy. The results of the Values Survey, however, indicate that the managers in Bangladesh will require management development activities that will be different from those in the United States and other western countries (as identified by Hofstede). Thus, while the goal must be the same, the means of development must be indigenized for the Bangladesh culture (and, presumably, for all unique cultures).

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The future of HRD

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Which organizational and technological and training developments will become crucial in the coming years, and what consequences will they bring to human resource development? These questions lead to study carried out by the faculty of Educational Science and Technology at the University of Twente, in the Netherlands. The ultimate goal of this research was to create an inventory of trends and developments which professionals deem to be influential with regard to the future figure of the HRD field.

One direct catalyst for the research was the report of a similar study in the United States, invloving HRD managers and carried out by the American Society for Training & Development (Training & Development, May 1994, pp. 29-32). Following a brief explanation of the research plan and methods, this article describes findings of the Dutch study, as well as comparisons to results of the American research. It concludes with comments regarding the implications of information which has been obtained through this investigation.

Methodology

In order to optimize the comparison potential of this with the American study, the Dutch researchers made use of an analogous research instrument. Only minor alterations had to be made with regard to the design and methodology. In terms of content, however, the instrument was completely identical to the American version. The Dutch instrument took the form of a written questionnaire which inquired about future developments in the arenas of organization, technology and training. These developments were separated into 40 different types, and for each type, 3 questions were asked: (1) In your opinion, how great is the chance that this development will actually take place?; (2) How great will the effect on HRD be?; (3) How great will the effects of this development impact your organization? The answers were to be given with the use of a 7 point scale: lowerst probability/effect (score 1) and greatest probability/effect (score 7). The Dutch questionnaire was sent to the readers of Training & Development. In total, 161 respondents returned the questionnaire prior to the deadline. Table 1 illustrates some characteristics of the response group.

Two respondents failed to indicate their job function. The distribution of task and job descriptions indicates that over half of the respondents were employed as trainer/consultant (internal and external combined). With regard to fields of employment, the category , "Bank, insurance & business services" stands out: 46% of the respondents (n=73) are employed within this area.

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Table 1: Tasks and job description of the respondents

	Industry, transport, utilities & construction	Bank, insurance & business services	Government	Total
Internal training manager	11	3	8	22
Internal trainer/consultant	13	17	14	44
Personnel staff/line manager	6	3	3	12
Manager external consulting agency	1	19	3	23
Trainer external consulting agency	3	29	12	44
Other	3	2	9	14
Total	37	73	49	159

The question, "how representative is the response group?" is quite difficult to answer. Reliable figures for population characteristics of HRD professionals are severely lacking in the Netherlands. As a result, the representativeness of the response group has been determined via available information, namely Training and Development's subscription list, and membership in the Dutch Association for Training Employees (NVvO). It should be noted that the latter data base has also been used for research into the HRD profile (Van Ginkel, Mulder,& Nijhof, 1994). Both in gender and age, the response group appears to fairly represent the Training & Development reader group, as identified by a telephone survey in 1990 which involved 200 of this magazine's subscribers.

The only exceptions: the percent of respondents from the age group 30-34 is slightly lower than the telephone survey indicates, while from the age group 45-54, relatively more individuals responded. In terms of representation of the NVvO membership, the response group bears a strong resemblance, with a slight over-representation of the 25-34 age group. In addition, 43% of the response group in this research indicate that they are employed in the "Bank, insurance & business services" category, while the NVvO membership roster shows only 34%. The distribution of the respondents with regard to the size of the organization wherein they are employed is in accordance with the distribution of the NVvO members. In summary, the response group is representative of the subscribers to Training & Development, as well as of the professional HRD population in the Netherlands; and the research population does not differ significantly from the national population of HRD professionals.

Organization Developments

17 potential organizational developments were presented to the respondents, with questions as to how likely these developments would occur in the next five years, what will be the effects on HRD and on the organization of the respondent. As previously mentioned, the answers to these questions were given in the form of a number on the 7 point scale. Table 2 illustrates the responses to the organizational development questions. The average score of 5.50 or higher indicates that people feel these developments have a relatively high chance of coming to fruition in the next few years; therefore scores lower than this were excluded from the chart.

Of the 17 organizational developments which were presented, 10 ranked notably high in terms of chance to transpire. The emphasis on the measurement of business results stands out as particularly significant (see table 2, column 1, development 1). The emphasis on business results may also be found (table 2) in nr. 8. This development, however, emphasizes the arrangement of the organization equally as much as business results. Developments 4, 5 and 6 share the indication that employees will be given more responsibility in the work place. This includes not only the execution of their jobs, but also in determination of their career paths. The impact of globalization on organizational development may be found in table 2, developments 2 and 7.

Table 2: Organizational developments with anticipated trends for the coming five years, effect on HRD and organization

	Organizational Developments	Probability	Effect on HRD	Organizational Effects
1	Measuring business results with regard to consumer relevant criteria	6.23	5.96	6.00
2	Communication and information-networking will exceed business and national boundaries	6.13	5.20	5.22
3	Increased importance of the innovative capicity of organizations	6.09	6.11	5.93
4	Increased employee responsible for own work and career path	5.88	5.87	5.25
5	Teams more responsible for total primary process	5.69	5.88	5.56
6	Employees will steer the direction of their own careers more	5.69	5.75	5.00
7	International standards and economy will permanently influence business organization and routine	5.69	5.34	5.03
8	Increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance	5.67	5.53	5.38
9	Organizations determine their core activities; auxiliary functions are either discontinued or carried out by temporary employees	5.62	5.34	5.14
10	Impatience with the current pace of change will lead to gradual and continuous reengineering of key processes and/or gradual and continuous improvements	5.54	5.32	5.12

With regard to organizational trends, respondents indicated that they expect to see more "trimming down" to nuclear activities (development 9, table 2). Furthermore, the emphasis will continue to be placed on the innovative capicity of organizations (development 3), with the accent on gradual, continuous development (development 10). In addition to the organizational tendencies mentioned in the previous table, this research also examined developments which are expected to have a relatively small chance for survival: large-scale personnel reduction (score 4.75); Interventions causing changes in the primary processes as a result of dissatisfaction with the tempo of the change process (score 4.76); less separation between management and employees in terms of authority, status and roles (score 4.96). Comparison of the less likely developments with the most likely tendencies yields some interesting discoveries. For example, respondents expect more trimming down to only core organizational activities while simultaneously predicting less large-scale personnel reduction. They don't appear to consider that the first of these developments initiaites the second. That is, pulling back to the nuclear functions in an organization implies the discontinuation of auxiliary functions, and thus the lay-off of personnel. It is also noteworthy that substantial organizational changes the primary processes did not appear in table 2. The respondents seem to think that the organizational changes will occur incrementally, not as a result of large-scale, immediate intervention (table 2, development 10). This is a striking contradiction to the currently popular concept of Business Process Engineering, wherein substantial changes are made simply to keep up with the competition. Finally, it is also noteworthy that the professionals expected the current distinction between employee and manager to remain as is, yet at the same time, more accent will be placed on the significance of team building and group accountability for the primary work process.

The effects of the aforementioned organizational developments on HRD may be found in the column, "effect on HRD". If the minimal score of 5.50 remains the criterion for a potential occurrence, only six of the original 17 organizational developments meet this criterion. It is expected that the greatest effect on HRD will be a result of the organizational development, "increased importance of the innovative capicity of organizations," (see table 2, development 3). Also, a stronger trend toward measuring business results with regard to consumer relevant criteria and an "increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance", (table 2, developments 1 and 8). In addition, other developments expected to have great influence on the role played by HRD include those emphasizing the responsibility of employees for their own

work and career paths, (developments 4,5 and 6). In summary, it may be stated that, while not all of the expected organizational developments will have a large impact, organizational change in terms of optimal business results and stronger appeal for personal responsibility of employees will influence the future of HRD.

The last column of table 2 concerns the anticipated results on the respondent's organization. Of the 17 organizational developments, only 3 appear to have a substantial chance for realization, (again, using the criterion of a minimal 5.50 score). These three developments are: the measurement of business results, the increased importance of innovation in organizations and increased shared responsibility for total primary process. While not the case for all developments, the tendency does appear in table 2, that the respondents rank the possibility of a development occurring higher than its effect on HRD, and the effect on their own organization is even lower than the effect on HRD. This may mean that there is a dwindling chance for certain developments to have significant impact. Thus the respondents mutually agree that the developments will have effects elsewhere (if at all). One explanation for this may be that, from a social standpoint, it is inappropriate to discuss overall chances for developments (which most appear to consider slim). It is far more acceptable to express hesitation with regard to one's own situation.

In table 2 the scores for each category are listed together. This information was also analysed in order to determine whether there was any indirect connection between the respondents judgement of probability for the organizational developments and their judgements regarding effects on HRD and their own organization. The group of respondents was divided into two sub-groups: those employed in a training/consultancy agency, and those working in the personnel or training department of a business. Only development 8 (table 2) showed a significant difference. Respondents employed by a training or consultancy agency estimated the chance for an increased interest in learning organizations with an eye toward the realization of optimal business results to be lower than their colleagues, (employed in personnel or training divisions), did. Finally, any connection between the size of organizations and the reactions of the respondents was considered. For this, only scores from respondents who are employed by businesses were examined, and the 44 respondents working at training and/or consultant agencies were excluded from this stage of analysis. The businesses were categorized: up to 100 employees, 100-500 employees and over 500 employees. The analysis showed no significant pattern in any category of the organizational developments. In other words, it appears that the relative size of a business had no significant impact on the scoring tendencies of the respondents.

Technological Developments

Six developments which refer to the applications of new technologies were presented to the respondents. Of these, five appear to have a good chance of realization, when using the criterion of a minimum 5.50 score (see table 3).

Development 1 clearly stands out as the development with the greatest chance for occurrence in the next five years: "digital electronics such as the internet will change the way information is created, stored, used and shared." Interestingly, a large effect on HRD is not expected, and neither is much impact on the respondent's own organization. It would appear that respondents have been influenced by the current discussions about the electronic superhighway, enough to consider it as having a role in our society, but are less sanguine about its effects on their own personal situation.

Can this be related to ignorance, resistance? Have the respondents had less positive experiences with informational technology developments in the last few years? Was CBT (computer-based training) or CAT (computer-supported training) not the optimal solution for functional shortcomings? Do many businesses still work with mainframes, and if so, are they still waiting (for financial reasons) to replace these with even more portable and flexible systems? It is worth noting at least one technological development which did not meet the 5.50 criterion: "the exchange of computer information will become an important source of learning." The results of this part of the research differ from those of organizational and training developments, when it comes to overall trends. While organizational and training developments evidence a steady decline from

Table 3: Technological developments with anticipated trends for the coming five years, effect on HRD and organization.

Technological developments		Probability	Effect on HRD	Effect on organization
1.	Digital electronics such as the internet will change the way information is created, stored, used and shared	6.11	5.01	5.15
2.	Technology in the workplace will become more portable and user-friendly	5.96	4.48	4.81
3.	The computer will be seen and used less as a main frame, and more as a portable desktop	5.90	4.31	4.57
4.	Organizational growth will spur on further exchange of information with clients and suppliers via the computer	5.81	4.30	4.77
5.	Computers and electronics will play a role in even more work environments	5.57	5.00	4.85

probability to "effect on HRD" and finally lowest at "effect on the organization," the technological developments are seen differently. There is a notable plunge throughout the second category, such that the respondents estimate greater effects on their own organization than on HRD! Again, examination took place of the link between the respondent's source of employment (in personnel or training within a business, or working for training/consultancy agency), and the estimates they made. This time, development 3 from table 3 ("technology in the workplace will become more portable and user-friendly") seems to differ depending on they type of organization. Those employed by businesses estimated the effects on their own organizations to be higher than those working for a training/consultant agency. In addition, any pattern relating the size of the organization to the scoring responses was again examined, (as previously, leaving the employees of training and consultant agencies out of the group). The analysis showed that only development 5 varies along with the size of the business. In small businesses, (with one hundred employees or less), as well as in large businesses, (with over 500 employees), computers and electronics are expected to play a role in even more work environments. As for the other four developments, business size appears to have no influence. In other words, the magnitude of the organization does not seem to be an adequate predictor for measuring the effects of new technologies on the respondents' own businesses.

Training developments

In this category, 17 training developments were presented to the respondents and, again with the criterion of 5.50 as a minimal score, 8 appear to have a reasonable chance for occurrence. These developments are described in table 4. From the information in table 4, it appears that the new models for learning will very likely have the opportunity to play a role in business the next five years. It should also be noted that: "there will be less emphasis on the traditional training concepts, learning will be more integrated with work" (development 1); self-guided learning and team learning are on the rise (development 3); interest is growing in how organizations learn and how they evaluate learning, including how it can be evaluated by temporary employees (development 7). Further, the expectation is that training will be more strongly focused on the performance of employees (developments 2 and 4). The diversification among the work force appears to be an issue which is expected to have significant influence on future developments in training. Finally, another expectation is that organizations will continue to search for the most effective blend of centralized and de-centralized training situations. Three of the developments which, according to the respondents, have little chance of occurring, are especially worth mention.

Two share a common theme, increased governmental support for training; these items are: the government will become more active in business training (score 3.62), the training of specific task

groups will be a conducted under governmental management (3.74), and support for training will shift more from professional trainers to technical specialists (score 4.81). The last of these is particularly remarkable; have we not been discussing the return of the training responsibility to the line manager in the last few years?

Table 4: Training developments with anticipated trends for the coming five years, effect on HRD and organization

Training developments		Probability	Effect on HRD	Effect on organization
1.	Less emphasis on the traditional training concepts, learning will be more integrated with work	6.10	6.12	5.86
2.	More training will be delivered 'just in time' and directly within the context of a job or task	5.86	5.78	5.52
3.	Increase in self-guided learning and team learning	5.75	5.73	5.47
4.	The emphasis in business high-performance work will shift training content away from isolated skill building and information transfer to performance improvement and support	5.65	5.57	5.29
5.	Monocultural workforces and homoge-neous customer bases are disappearing. Companies will devote more effort to being aware of differences and incorpo-rating diverse values into their practices, products and services	5.62	5.60	5.16
6.	Companies will continue to experiment with centralization and de-centralization, searching for the right mix of overall direction and local delivery of training	5.62	5.49	4.99
7.	Interest will grow in how organizations learn and how they evaluate learning, including how it can be evaluated by temporary employees	5.61	5.47	5.32
8.	Companies with large numbers of temporary and part-time employees are confronted with the problems of how to train, motivate and commu-nicate with these employees	5.55	5.61	4.95

Of the eight developments which appear to have a strong probability for occurring, six have been noted (by the respondents) to have a potentially large effect on HRD (score 5.50 or higher). Just under the limit of 5.50 are the (de)centralization of training and the increased interest in learning how organizations function. Of the tendencies in table 4, the respondents expect only two of them to have a large effect on their own situation: 'less emphasis on traditional training' (development 1), and 'just-in-time' job and task training (development 2). Once again, the researchers looked for any influence of business size, as well as influence related to employment by a business or a training/consultant agency. The trainers who work in a business expect that the diversification issue will play a greater role in the business world in the next five years than their counter-parts who are employed by training/consultant agencies. Business size, again, shows no sign of influencing the respondents' expectations for the probability of the issue, its effect on HRD or its effect on the organization.

Comparison with the US

As a result of using virtually the same research instrument as that developed by the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), the potential for comparison possibilities has been maximized. In the American research, only HRD managers were asked to participate in the survey, while in the Netherlands, training advisors and personnel staff were also invited to share their opinions regarding future developments (see table 1). The Dutch research shows that the function of the respondent had virtually no influence on his/her perception of the developments. Only in the estimation of the effect on HRD of the measure wherein teams will play a greater role in the

total primary process (see table 2) is there evidence of a slight distinction. Due to the overwhelming statistical support evidencing virtually no difference among respondent groups, the total set of respondents was then compared to the set of American HRD managers. In table 5, information concerning this international comparison is given.

Notably, the respondents' estimated effects on their own organizations are not included in table 5. In this comparison, the focus lies on what field workers find important for the coming years, and how/if this affects HRD. The criterion used for inclusion in this table was: any category with either a Dutch or an American HRD probability and or effect score of at least 5.50 should be included. It should be noted that all of the technological developments would fail to meet this 'strict' criterion. The decision to compare the three top scoring issues for both Dutch and American 'organizational developments' as well as for 'training developments' was made on an arbitrary basis. In examining table 5, one may see that America and Holland have different "top three' lists. In the Netherlands, the most probable items were: (1) "measuring business results with regard to consumer relevant criteria," followed by (2) less emphasis on the traditional training concepts, learning will be more integrated with work and (3) "Increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance." In the United States, the three highest scoring developments were: (1) "companies will continue to experiment with centralization and de-centralization, searching for the right mix of overall direction and local delivery of training," (2) "Increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance," (3) "leadership expressed through teams will become more common." This procedure was then applied to the developments' effect on HRD, and that yielded the following results. In the Netherlands, the same three issues scored highest, but in a different sequence: (1) "less emphasis on the traditional training concepts, learning will be more integrated with work," (2) "Increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance" and (3) "measuring business results with regard to consumer relevant criteria." The scoring behavior of the American HRD managers shows that two of the three issues returned to take place in the "top three" list: (1) "increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance," secondly -a new addition to the top three list- (2) "increased importance of the innovative capicity of organizations" and (3) "companies will continue to experiment with centralization and de-centralization, searching for the right mix of overall direction and local delivery of training." Clearly the above summary shows that those employed in the Dutch training field are quite strongly in accordance with the American HRD managers. Five of the developments listed in table 5 were considered significant enough to rank at least once in the "top three" key issues. Only one development, "leadership through teams will become more common," was nominated just a single time in the (American) top three. The other 11 developments are less worthy of 'honorable mention,' despite the fact that they have a score of 5.50 or higher!

Afterward

In the research, "the future of HRD," training and personnel staff were asked 40 questions about organizational, technological and training developments. They were given the chance to predict which trends and issues would play key roles in the field of HRD throughout the next few years, if they will affect HRD and if they will affect their individual organizations. The research was carried out in the Netherlands following a similar (almost identical) study in the United States. While it may be argued that the response group comprises a fair image of the Dutch HRD professional population, the researchers realize that the eagerness to participate in this type of study is generally minimal. After repeated requests, the total number of respondents was increased to 161. The relatively low reaction was most likely caused by the fact that this type of research usually yields little or narrowly focused information. On the other hand, it should be mentioned that the interest for this type of information is usually rather wide-spread. Don't we all wish it were so simple to determine whether the company were on the right course, or whether the individual HRD professional were on target. A comprehensive study investigates corporate as well as individual information from a peer group, and certain issues are determined to have national,

Table 5: Comparison of the Netherlands (n=161) with the US (n=90)

	Development	Probability in NL	Probability in US	Effect on HRD NL	Effect on HRD US
	Organizational Developments				
1	Measuring business results with regard to consumer relevant criteria	6.23	5.60	5.96	5.60
2	Increased importance of the innovative capicity of organizations	6.09	5.55	6.11	5.95
3	Increased interest in re-engineering organizations with an eye toward high performance	5.61	5.90	5.53	6.10
4	Teams more responsible for total primary process	5.69	5.70	5.88	5.70
5	Increased employee responsibility for own work and career path	5.88	5.50	5.87	5.45
6	Employees will steer the direction of their own careers more	5.69	5.30	5.75	5.15
7	International standards and economy will permanently influence business organization and routine	5.69	5.60	5.34	5.60
8	Employers will have to work harder to earn their employees trust	5.03	5.70	4.99	5.70
9	Leadership expressed through teams will become more common	5.32	5.80	5.44	5.50
	Training developments				
10	Less emphasis on the traditional training concepts, learning will be more integrated with work	6.10	5.45	6.12	5.60
11	More training will be deliverd 'just in time' and directly within the context of a job or task	5.86	5.75	5.78	5.75
12	Increase in self-guided learning and team learning	5.75	5.05	5.73	5.65
13	The emphasis on business high-performance work will shift training content away from isolated skill building and information transfer to performance improvement and support	5.65	5.65	5.57	5.80
14	Monocultural workforces and homogeneous customer bases are disappearing. Companies will devote more effort to being aware of differences and incorporating diverse values into their practices, products and services	5.62	5.40	5.60	5.40
15	Companies will continue to experiment with centralization and decentralization, searching for the right mix of overall direction and local delivery of training	5.62	6.20	5.49	5.85
16	Companies with large numbers of temporary and part-time employees are confronted with the problems of how to train, motivate and communicate with these employees	5.55	5.50	5.61	5.60
17	Training delivery will continue to shift from professional trainers to nontrainers such as managers, team leaders and technical specialists	4.81	5.35	5.27	5.60

even international importance and influence. How the information will be used (if at all) will be determined by the organization or HRD professional individually. The aforementioned feedback-function of the information collected through this research is not only valuable in HRD practice, but also to researchers in the field of HRD. For this group, generally somewhat less in touch with

the actualities of HRD (this comment often heard reproachfully), the research, "the future of HRD," may be useful as the input for the formulation of programming suggestions for research in business training. Taking the "top trends" seriously and positively influencing HRD practice would evidence the importance of HRD's alliance with the field of training research. Surely this research has left some readers unsurprised, but for those readers, this may at least confirm their suspicions. For others, this has been new and useful information. Clearly in the Netherlands, as well as in the United States, the battle between creating innovative organizations which produce optimal results continues to rage. Issues including business results, wishes of the clients and the consumers, the increased importance of organizational changing capacity, the integration of learning with working, the search for the most effective mix of (de) central training and leadership through teams and more will continue to fertilize and mould the field of HRD, especially in the immediate future!

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